Operator: I would now like to turn today's meeting over to your host, Miss Kim Davis. Thank you. You may begin.

Kim Davis: Thank you. Good day everyone. Thank you for joining us for another Census Academy webinar today. Today, we will be having our presenter from the History Division of the Public Information Office, presenting a Brief History of The Census, 1790 to 2020. We are recording today's webinar and it will be available on Census Academy within the next few weeks under the webinar recorded tab.

We have a large number of participants today. So, if we do not get to all the questions, at the end in the Q&A session, we will follow up and we will offer a contact information. We will not be able to address any 2020 Census operation questions today. We ask that you please refer to the 2020census. gov website for details. We will be offering opportunity for questions to be asked in the chat feature of your WebEx screen.

Our speaker today is Ms. Sharon Tosi Lacey. She's a historian with the US Census Bureau's Public Information Office. Lacey has served as the Chief Historian for the US Census Bureau since 2015. Previously, she sent 25 years as an officer in the US Army and US Army Reserve before retiring in 2015 as a lieutenant colonel. She holds a Bachelors of Science from the United States Military Academy and a Master's of Science in Education from Long Island University and a PhD in History from the University of Leeds.

Welcome, Sharon. The floor is yours.

Sharon Tosi Lacey: Thank you so much and thank you to everyone who's joining us today who has an interest in census history. And I hope today you'll be able to see how Census History is American History. And, as we evolved at the census, it mirrors the evolution of what was going on, both technologically and demographically and socially in the United States. So, today, I'm just going to talk briefly about the information, but in the context of our evolution of the decennial census from 1790 through 2010.

Obviously, I'm not going to have a whole lot to say about 2020, because we're still figuring out what the story is going to be. I think we have a little bit to tell about that when it's over. And this is how we're going to break it down. It's very easy to break down our census history into several epochs. So, the first is early sense of history when we were just trying to figure out what we were doing and what our new country look like. And then, as we began growing, not just as a country, but also we started seeing a revolution in statistics and so forth, we began looking at the census as more than just a simple count of people.

And then, as we kept moving forward, technologically, we began transitioning into the census becoming the Statistical Bureau for the - for the government. And that includes having a permanent Census Bureau and starting to use early computers and so forth. And finally, we are in the phase where we are constantly modernizing the census to keep up with

the technological changes in the United States. And lastly, is telling the story and how do we tell these stories.

I want to do a disclaimer because, obviously, whenever you're talking about historical material, there are going to be things that are inappropriate or offensive by today's standards. So, we want to remind people that all the historical content on our history site and/or historical census documents must be taken with the time period when they were written and may contain outdated terminology or views which reflect attitudes of the author or the period of which it was written.

Also, this is a common misconception. Historic census records are maintained and released only by the National Archives and Records Administration. The US Census Bureau does not and will never release individual census records. That being said, we're happy to help people to guide them through interpreting what is on their individual census records that's been released by the National Archives. But we are not the ones who released those. And those are only released after 72 years. So, in 2022, we'll see the release of the 1950 census.

Why even take a census? You know, we all know it's mandated by the Constitution. We know it's to ensure the representative of proportional representation in the House of Representatives. We use the reapportionment after every census, we take a look at the - at the - where the people are. And we reapportion the number of representatives.

The only time we didn't do that actually was after the 1920 census. There was a battle between work - rural and urban voters and they couldn't come to consensus on how to calculate the reapportionment. So, the battle went on so long that it actually bled into the next census. And we did not - we're not able to do a reapportionment.

As a result, we have the Reapportionment Act of 1929, which put into law that the House of Representatives is capped at 435 representatives. That number had been capped since 1911. But, in 1929, we finally put it into law.

Prior to that, we would increase the number of representatives after every census, because the - they had determined it was one representative per a certain number of people. And a lot of people ask, "Why do we cap it at 435? What's magical about that number?" It's literally the number of people that we could fit into the House of Representatives on the House floor. And that's why the number was capped there.

There's only been one time where we increased that cap temporarily in 1969. When Alaska and Hawaii became states, we added to two representatives, one for each state temporarily until after the 1960 census could reapportion. And then it went down to 430 - 435 where it remains. Now, a lot of people ask why have we gone beyond just counting the people. Well because, as time has gone by, we found that it's more important not just know the number of people we have, but to know what does our population look like and to find out more about who we are not just what we are.

And, so, for that reason - and this has been fought in court many times. The Supreme Court has ruled that we can collect statistics on anything as long as it has a federal or state government need. So, we can't collect information on anything that strikes or when we have to be able to show that there is a need for those statistics.

Now, what are some of the things we will never ask? One thing will never ask in the census is what not - never asked about religion. We have done censuses of religious bodies, which is counting churches and the churches have given us numbers of members. But we will never ask an individual about their religion.

The other thing we will never ask is about your legal status. We may ask if you are a citizen, a noncitizen, natural born or naturalized, but we will never ask if you are here legally or illegally. Never ever, never have, and never will. Now, in 1790, when we just started out with the census, our questions were pretty basic. We asked the name of the head of household. And then they counted the number of free white males, 16 years of age or older and the number of free white males less than 16, the number of free white females, the number of all other free persons, and the number of slaves.

Now, there - the reason that there was a divide between free white males 16 older and 16 and younger was because they wanted to know how many men did we have of military age - military conscription age here in the United States. And you'll notice one of the things that's not there is that we didn't ask about race. And the reason for that was there was basically only either white or black. Everyone who was not white or black was classified as white. And one of the reasons that we even asked about some things like the conscription numbers is the founding fathers recognized that we needed to know more than a couple. And that was kind of a compromise. You had people like James Madison, who wanted to ask more, more questions and he was shot down, so, he - as time went on, though, they started adding more and more questions.

So, 1790, only the head of household name was recorded. The only people - everyone who's residing United States was counted except Indians not taxed. And what does that mean? That's - that's a question that comes up quite a bit. Indians not taxed literally means that anybody - any Native Americans who is living what they call not in civilization. And I say that in air quotes. That meant if they were living on a reservation, which was considered its own nation. If they were living in a town and living among - and paying taxes and working in a town, then they were counted. And they were counted as free white people. Indentured servants were counted under free persons.

The US Marshals conducted the enumeration, because we didn't have a permanent body to conduct a census. In fact, up until 1902, Census office would only open a couple of years before the census conduct a census and stay open for a couple of years afterwards, compile the data, and then close down again. In 1790, the Secretary of State - Thomas Jefferson, actually was the person who oversaw the census.

And the reason they use US Marshals to conduct the enumeration is they were basically the only federal officers that were all over the country. And it took us about three years to get all of the numbers from the 1790 census brought in. It obviously was not as easy as it is nowadays, where we have - reliable mail. We have reliable addresses.

The US Marshals would hire deputy marshals. And they literally had to go and figure out where houses were. Coming - you know where people were. And we - at that time, we counted not only the 13 original states, but we also counted the territories. Tennessee hopes to be able to have enough people to become a state. And they fell a little bit short, but we still counted their numbers in our total numbers. And, again, this was literally just an aggregate count of data, how many people under each of those categories.

Now, in 1800, it was the beginning of our expansion of how we began to ask these questions. The questionnaire we provided is made to tally free white males and females in several age categories, under 10, 10 but under 15, 16 but under 25, 25 but under 45, and over 45. Indian slaves and free blacks were listed in single categories and divided into age groups, just simply by sex.

And what's interesting in these early censuses is that the census takers was not given a nice, neat, printed schedule. They were only given the list of questions. And then they had to devise their own schedule with those questions. So, when you go back and you look at those early censuses from state to state, even within states, sometimes, you would see different formats that were used.

Unfortunately, many of these early censuses were burned by the British during the war of 1812, 1790, 1800, and a good portion of 1810, particularly from states like Virginia and Maryland were lost and had to be recreated from other data. And, as a matter of fact, George Washington is the only US president that we don't have an original census form for, because he died in 1799 before the 1800 census. And his 1790 census was burnt during the war.

In 1810 is when we really sought for the beginning of the increase of what could we use the census to collect data on when we added the census and manufacturing. However, people were not completely trusting of the government. We always like to say the United States was founded on a basic mistrust of government and government power.

So, people were reluctant to tell the census, especially home businesses, which the vast majority of businesses were farm businesses or at home businesses, were reluctant to tell a government agent exactly how much their goods and services were worth, how much money they had made. And, in fact, the collection of manufacturing data was so erratic 1810 that it was generally considered useless, except to identify some broad industrial trends.

In 1820, we added a couple of other questions, including the number of household members working in agriculture, manufacturing, and commerce. And all races were tallied by age group this time for the first time. And

this was also the first time we asked how many non-naturalized citizens were in each household.

And, again, like I said, we never asked if you were here legally or illegally, but there was a general feeling that we, at least, had to know how many people were citizens, particularly as it pertained to voting and so forth. So, the questions that we see in later years, there's really nothing new. We've been asking them in one form or another since 1820.

And, again, the census of the manufacturers still wasn't as accurate as we would like and really only showed broad trends in manufacturing and gave us an idea of how many people were working in those broad groups of agriculture, manufacturing, and commerce. 1830 is when we finally started seeing these uniform printed schedules. We did not collect manufacturing in 1830. The feeling was it was - it was no - there was no - there was no use in doing it that year, because it had been so poorly done in years before.

But what we did start doing is collecting social statistics and vital statistics in 1830. And we collected information on the blind. This was the first time that we use the census for social statistics and to determine where should money for certain groups go.

And, for example, there was - they wanted to start putting schools for the blind around the country. And they had to see where it would make the most sense to put these schools. And we see that carried on to today when the importance of the census data is where to put money, where to put resources, and how to allocate billions of dollars across the whole nation.

In 1840, again, we saw that they were increasing where the Revolutionary War pensioners, which, at this point, meant many of them were older. What we started seeing is that we could start to use the census to get a picture of the people within the census. And we're moving closer. At this point, the household was a unit of enumeration. And 1840 was the last time that happened. And, as you'll see the next - in the next slide as we move forward, we started looking at the person as a unit of enumeration.

The manufacturing - in 1840, we did start collecting manufacturing industry point of data again, because we needed to know where our industry was going. We're at the beginning of the Industrial Revolution. We wanted to see where was our -because, usually, you would see the industry manufacturer move there and then the people would follow. We needed to know where the Revolutionary War pensioners, because we wanted to estimate the cost of paying the pensioners their pensions.

We also did a separate agricultural schedule and a schedule on schooling and literacy, because you were - this was the beginning when they were starting to put together public schools. And they wanted to know - where people were and what was the level of understanding of our people. And we also, in addition to collecting data on the deaf - on the blind, we also collected data on the deaf in 1840.

Now, 1850 to 1900 is such an interesting period because we saw - we had the Industrial Revolution. Obviously, we had the Civil War. But we also had a revolution in statistical analysis. So, we slowly, starting in 1850, started seeing the census become more than just tallying up numbers. We could take those numbers and we could analyze them. We could - we could read things from them. So, in 1850, not only did the individual become the unit data collection, but we started greatly expanding the questions that we asked.

We add new questions on occupations. We have literacy, birth place, property ownership, a host of vital and social statistics. And we start to see the rudimentary - statistical analysis. We started seeing some early - where you would do - tables. Beyond tables, you'll be able to graphs. Then you will start being able to see visual statistical analysis.

And then, 1860 - and, again, up to this point, it's the same - the same as before. There are really only two races. You're either black or white. And it's interesting, when you go back to some of the older ones - older censuses, because, sometimes, the census taker then still the US Marshals would make a determination for the family based on what they saw. And 1860 is when we started including - American Indians was added to the list of races. At this point, Indians not tax still weren't included in that, because the Indians living on reservations were considered their own nation. So, they were not considered in apportionment, because they had their own laws and they had your own government.

1860 and 1850 were very similar in the fact that they even use the same authorizing legislation. And, at this point, the - when they would pass the legislation for the census, the Congress would come up with a list of questions. And that they would submit those.

1870, after the war, is when we really began seeing the census in a form that we recognize today. And a lot of that is due to Francis Amasa Walker, one of the fathers of modern statistics. He was - he's a very interesting guy. And when I - I'll give you our website at the end. He was a - he was a colonel in the Union Army. He fought in countless battles. He was taken prisoner and then came to head off our 1870 and 1880 census.

And he was very much a proponent of using the census to really analyze what was going on in the country. And he was also a proponent of diversity, before that was really even a concept. He made a concerted effort to hire union veterans, disabled union veteran, freed slaves, and the widows of union veterans to work at the census.

And, again, the census office was only a temporary office that would start a few years before. But, by 1870, we were seeing that it was taking longer and longer to finish the tabulating of the data. And we also saw the beginning of the use of tabulating machine. Up until this - up until 1870, they literally would take in each schedule and would count the numbers by hand.

But, 1870, we had the seat - tabulating machine, which allowed them to tabulate the numbers much more rapidly, although, it still would take five, six, seven years. And we started seeing where the end of one census would bleed into the beginning of the next census. And we were collecting so much data in 1870 that Walker realized we can no longer use the US Marshals, because they really - they had another job. They were - they were the law - the lawmen. So, he was - it began in 1870. He started advocating for us to have professional temporary enumerators to conduct the census. And he wanted them to be from the towns and neighborhoods where they did the counting. And that tied into his idea of hiring diversity.

If you were - if you were in a free black neighborhood - I don't know if it was a free black neighborhood, but, if you were in a black neighborhood, then you'd hire a black enumerator, who would know the neighborhood, would know the people, and the people in the neighborhood would be comfortable talking to and sharing their information with. And then 1880 is when we finally did get those professional enumerators. Also, in 1870, we started seeing large numbers of immigrants coming over from China to help work on the railroad. So, you saw the addition of Chinese as a racial category.

And, obviously, 1870 was the first census where there was no slave schedule. So, 1850 and 1860, you would have the names of everybody in the free household. But the slave schedule would only have sex and age. 1870 was the first census where every single person in every single household was named. So, anyone who's doing research will find it a little challenging when they go - beyond earlier than 1870, because a lot of times, even within the household, they wouldn't even write the whole name. They would just put the initials. And, so, you have to figure that out. But 1870 is really when every single person in the United States had their name listed on the census.

In 1880, again, we were using professional numerators. And this is when we started - we had the Hollerith machine. The Hollerith machine was the first electronic tabulating machine and the forerunner of a modern computer. And, so, they had hired large numbers of people who would put the information onto punch cards, which were then fed into the machines. And one schedule might have 10 different punch cards, because they would do one punch cards for race data. They would do one punch card for age data and so forth.

And it's interesting because that was considered unskilled labor. So, you saw a lot of women and minorities doing those jobs. And those same women and minorities, as we move to the computer age, were the only ones who knew how to do these punch cards. And, so, in the earlier part of the 20th Century, you saw women and minorities moving up as managers because - and into the computer rooms, because they were the ones who knew how to do that work.

In 1880, we also did a census of Indians not taxed. For the first time, we went on to the reservations. And this final report is actually very interesting, because we used sociologists to go and anthropologists to go do some of the enumeration and to put together the final reports.

And they not only counted the people, but they looked at their system of government, their system of family, how did they dress, what did they do for leisure, what was their education levels and so forth. And, for some of the smaller tribes, this was the - this was the only way that we preserved to know how some of these tribes lived back then.

And we also we had just taken possession of Alaska. So, this was the first census of Alaska. Although, there's a little bit of controversy. There's the belief that there maybe some of those numbers were made up rather than fight through some of the hardships of Alaska that he made up - they made up some tribes and some numbers there.

1890, unfortunately, 95 to 98 percent of the 1890 census schedules were destroyed in a fire. So, for some reason, nobody thought it was - nobody thought it was bad idea to let our security guards smoke around a lot of old paper. The fire happened in the night in 1921. And, so, most - I say unfortunately, because the 1890 census was probably the most comprehensive schedule we ever had.

And it collected a lot of data on civil war veterans. And, unfortunately, all of those individual schedules are lost. And anyone who does genealogy that had family back then finds that 1890 would solve so many of their problems. But, unfortunately, it just doesn't exist anymore. Again, most comprehensive schedule.

And we also saw the addition of many new racial categories. And, again, I have to apologize. These are the terms that were used back at the time. And these terms will be considered offensive, but they had terms such as quadroon, octoroon, and mulatto. And they also added the racial category of Japanese. This is the first time we had Japanese immigrants coming over in large numbers. And all of these categories were precisely defined in the enumerators instructions. We also had a separate schedule for civil war veterans and their widows. And there was a separate schedule if they were in the Union side.

And then in 1900, which would be the end of - this revolution and statistical analysis. It was - oh, I'm sorry. I forgot to say in 1890 that 1890 was also generally considered the end of the frontier. Up until that point we were tracking westward expansion. In 1890, they said all of the United States is settled to a certain degree. There is no more frontier. In 1900, again, we kept expanding what we were using the census for. And we used a lot of experts. For example, in 1900, Alexander Graham Bell oversaw the - I'm sorry.

Alexander Graham Bell with a special agent who oversaw the collection of statistics on the deaf and blind. We had done a such a collection in 1890. And he took a look at it and said, "You're asking the wrong questions. You're going about this the wrong way." He was very familiar with the deaf community. His mother was dead. His wife was deaf. He was very involved with Gallaudet University. And, so, he worked and hired a lot of deaf enumerators to conduct these schedules. And he said, "You have to know how to ask the questions."

And one of the things they were trying to see is if there was any familial link to deafness or blindness in addition to try to determine where to put schools. And he was one of many, many experts that we hired for the census.

And, if you look at the final reports from 1900, particularly, the ones on industries, their forward matter is almost like a master's thesis on different industries, such as the oil industry in the United States and so forth. It's pretty fascinating, the expertise, that we - that we got. And this was the first year that we enumerated all American Indians on the general schedule. And we also started enumerating soldiers and sailors, who may not be here. They were enumerated by Department of War and the Navy. 1900 also saw the addition of Hawaii.

And then we increased our categories of what we asked. Utilities, we asked about transportation, juvenile delinquency even. But we did also eliminate certain racial categories in 1900. No longer were there categories such as mulatto, quadroon, or octoroon. Those really only appeared for one time. We also asked a lot of social statistics on chronic illness, homeownership, indebtedness, the number of children, if you are taking up your naturalization papers. I mean the plethora of information they collected in 1890 and 1900 is just fascinating. And anyone who's ever looked at those schedules, they read almost like novels.

I know one thing, when we help people go through those schedules and we help museums put together schedules, one of my personal favorites is, in 1870, there was a gentleman in Louisiana who was a free slave. His name was (Cald Good). He listed his age as 115 years old and put in the margin of the census schedule, it says he was brought to America by (Lucky), the pirate. I like to think there's a whole novel to be written from that one census entry from that gentleman. But, again, if you go through there, there's just so much information to mine from these censuses.

And, at the turn of the century, we realized, at this point, the amount of information we're taking in was taking too long to calculate. And we had to create a permanent Census Bureau. So, in 1902, a permanent Census Bureau was established, where, initially, we were under the Department of Interior. And then we moved on to the Department of Labor and Commerce. And then, in 1913, when Labor and Commerce split into their own departments, we stayed under the Department of Commerce, which is where we remain today.

And then we continue to collect Economic Census. But, again, it became - we were collecting so much information in decennial that they decided to separate the Economic Census from the Decennial Census. And the Economic Census would be taken every five years in between the two censuses. And, again, we were still using the individual as the - as the standard enumeration. And, interestingly - now, we think about it, well, you always - you would always enumerate the people where they lived.

Well, prior to 1910, you had a lot of people who would work for long periods of time away from their family, especially out west. You would have men working in logging camps or mining camps where their families

were living elsewhere. And they would be enumerated with those mine and logging camps. So, now, they would consider - starting in 1910, they would consider where do usually live. Even if you're away for school or work, you'll be enumerated with your family because that's where you live.

And that's where you should be represented. And that's where your money should go. The money for your - for your - that your - for your town or your community should go to where you actually live. And this is actually an issue that even today of where do you count people on military bases and where do you count people in prisons and other institutions. Do they - are they counted in the community where they're currently residing or they count where they will go home to?

And 1910 was also the first time they added the racial category, other, which we still have today. And this 1910 census became the basis to mobilize our economy and population for World War I. As I said earlier, in 1911, we set the number of seats in the House of Representatives at 1935.

And one of the things that we collected in these early years was we would ask where were you born, and where was your mother born, and where was your father born, because one of the statistics they were interested in was to try to find out where were immigrants going, where were immigrants coming from - how many people were native born or have one parent who's foreign born versus native born. There was a lot of questions about this, what languages were spoken at home.

And, between 1910 and 1920, obviously, we had World War I. A lot of countries that existed before 19 - in 1910 did not exist in 1920. And countries that did not exist in 1920 or 1910, now existed in 1920. So, anyone who's researched their family there - I can see it through my own. My great - my grandparents are listed as being from Austria-Hungary, in 1910, as Austrian, but, in 1920, suddenly, they're Czechoslovakian. And there was - there was - in the instructions to the enumerators, there's a long list of the new countries to remind them. You know, here - here's the countries that you need to ask people that they could possibly be from.

And nothing they asked in 1920 was the ability to read write English specifically. In the past, they'd ask can you read and write, but they didn't specify can you read and write English. And, as I said before, we had no apportionment after the 1920 census. The 1929 Reapportionment Act set that the census - the number - the Congress number and also set how do we - how do we do our enumeration and apportionment.

In 1930, we saw shift. Up until this point, Congress had supplied the question. But, now, we have a permanent Census Bureau with a permanent census director as opposed to a superintendent. And that director could work directly with the Secretary of Commerce, who, obviously, would work with the other secretaries across all the other government agencies to determine what statistical data was needed across all the federal agencies. The Congress - up to this point, Congress will specify the subjects, but not the questions. And even that was eventually changed.

In 1930, we started looking much more like the census we have today. We had 48 states plus the District of Columbia, Alaska, and Hawaii. Plus, we started asking - we had a lot of iron - island areas that were under our - under our control. And we started seeing this starting in 1900, where we would have Guam, American Samoa, the Virgin Islands, the Panama Canal Zone, and so forth. We started doing census of those areas. And we still do censuses of many of these island areas today.

And 1930 was the beginning of depression. So, we had two unemployment censuses in 1931 and 1937. These were mixed use, because they were self-reported. So, you - we didn't get as strong with statistical probability as we would like for those. And, at this time, we also saw racial categories for Black, Mexican, Filipino, Hindu, and Korean added. Mexican would be a category 1930 and then we would not see a category for Hispanics until - again, until we tested it in 1970. And then we saw it for everybody in 1980. So, that - in 1930, it was specifically one congressman who wanted that category in there.

In 1940, again, this is when we saw what looked like the modern census. We saw the introduction of statistical sampling. And that's the idea that you could take a representative group of the United States and use those numbers to extrapolate for the larger population. Now, that being said, we cannot do statistical sampling for the entire census. That's actually been brought up and fought before the - before the Supreme Court who ruled that we must do a count of the entire country. But, on certain questions, we were able to ask just a sample.

And, in 1940, for example, the questions we asked to the sample was where were - what were your native tongue, where was your mother and father born, and, so - and, if you had been a veteran of any war. And the way they did that was they had certain lines on the census schedule have a dark line under it and, whoever was on that line, you ask the extra questions, though. And there were five different variations of where that line was on the sheet so that you wouldn't get - in case you had families before, you weren't always getting the child in the family or anything like that. This eventually became what we knew was the long form.

And, in - from 1940 until 2000, you - a certain percentage of a population, everyone would get a certain number of questions and a certain percentage of population would get the long form. And it's usually around one in six families or one in five families, depending. And that long form would have additional information. And this is also our first use of imputation. And that's a question - that's a word that gets thrown around and there's a lot of fear mongering about it. And what imputation basically means is, when you get a sense of schedule and you look at a family or person's information, does it make sense compared to all of their neighbors.

Some people are always going to think that they're funny and put in - crazy information and think they're fooling the government. Well, they'll look and say, "Well, let's see. In this neighborhood, people tend to own their homes. They tend to make this much money and so forth. It doesn't - this information doesn't make sense." So, then they could go back and do

some quality control checks on that information to make sure it makes sense within the context, because neighborhoods broadly tend to be homogenous, not necessarily racially, but tend to be homogenous - homogenous, socially and economically.

World War II, we use the 1940 census extensively. In fact, the victory plan in World War II was created using two statisticians and an economist who had, at different times, worked at the Census Bureau. But we use census data to figure out - what do we have, what are our minerals like, what do we have - what raw materials do we have, what manufacturing base do we have, what kind of people do they have - demographically, how many people.

And they - when they put it together and they delivered it to the White House on December 10, actually, 1941. And, in it, they said, "We will have enough people manpower, materials, and manufacturing to invade Europe, May or June of 1944." And they were exactly right. That was the victory plan.

And it's interesting - and 1940 census was also used extensively to help people trying to prove their citizenship as people came to work for the government or enlist in the military. You have to remember, at this time, not everybody would have a birth certificate. So, they could use their census information.

Our Librarian,(Mary Orthler), actually, was - her and her team spent so much of their time helping people prove that not only were they American citizens, their ages, and helping people who may have been stuck overseas, when the war broke out, to be able to help them come back and prove that they were American citizens, tell people participate in war work.

And this is the last census that's open to the public. 1950, as I said, will be released by NARA around April 2022. And we eagerly await that. 1950 was the first time we saw a huge number of Americans and their families stationed abroad from the military and from the civilians. We had bases in Germany and Japan and the occupation forces. So, it was the first time we had to - we had a significant number of Americans to enumerate abroad. And we also had picked up a few smaller Island areas such as the Marianas.

And, interestingly, 1950 was the first time we use detailed street maps, because, before then, we had our geography people can - they would take whatever maps were available. And they would try to roughly figure out, "Okay. We think this many people live in this area." So, they wanted to give each census taker roughly the same number of people to count. So, therefore, if you were in a city, you'd have a smaller number and a smaller - you have a smaller area. But where, if you're in a rural area, you could be - you could have a massive area.

And we got some great pictures. Our census takers, they go by horseback. They go by helicopter. They go by airplane. In Alaska, they go by dog sled - to get out to count - physically count every single person. And

you also have to remember, at this point, not everyone had an address. So, it wasn't as easy as going to the post office and saying, "Okay. Tell us who's here."

Ironically, it wasn't till the 1970s that everyone was assigned an address. And that was mostly for the 911 system. That wasn't for the census, but we were, obviously, able to take advantage of that. On, even nowadays, at the island areas, we still have to do a door-to-door census. We don't do mail out and mail back, because there are still a lot of places in the island areas, they don't have an official address.

Also, in 1950, we have more training specific to count transients. These were people who would often fall in between the cracks, because they didn't have a set address. So, where were you going to go to count these people? So, they would set - this was transient night. And there'll be one night where numerators would go to all of the - all the houses, the hospitals, the hotels, transient hotels, and so forth to try to count them at once. Now, naturally, you're always going to have double count. In fact, I think pretty much every President in the 19th Century and early 20th Century was double counted, both at the White House and then wherever they came from.

And, also, in 1951, UNIVAC I - and the very first non-Department of Defense computer came here - serial number 0001 came here to the Census Bureau in 1951. And it was used to calculate part of the 1950 census and all of the 1954 Economic Census. And that's where you saw these people who had the women and minorities who had been working - we've been using variations of the Hollerith machine until 1950, believe it or not. So, from 1890 to 1950, we use variants of the same kind of punch card. It was electronic sensors.

And the people with the punch cards were amazing. We have some brief video of them. They would have a machine with the schedule in front of them that they could turn to isolate a line. And they had - they would punch the punch cards. And a good punch card operator could punch several thousand in a day. It's absolutely amazing how quickly they were able to do that. So, we started seeing - starting in 1920, you start seeing women and minorities moving up into management positions here in the Census Bureau.

In 1960, we developed the FOSDIC. We used to have our in-house machine shop that would invent new things and easier and better ways to collect data and to process data. And anyone who's taken a standardized test where you had to fill in the little circles, and then it had been in pencil, and it got scanned. Thanks to Census Bureau. That's FOSDIC.

And this - what FOSDIC did, though, is it eliminated the need to transfer data to the punch cards. So, you could just feed the actual schedules through and the computer to pick up what it needed, depending on how you had the reader set. And, now, it can - at the beginning, they could read 3,000 items per minute - 3,000 schedules per minute, which is pretty amazing. And, eventually, it would become 70,000 per minute. That's how quickly they were able to process that information.

And 1960 was also when we started experimenting with mail out and mail back. We tried it in urban areas where, in 1960, we mailed out the questionnaires and told people, "Fill them out and hold on to them. And then we'll come - our numerator will come pick them up." And 1970 is when we did what we now - we did a much broader use. 1970 was the first time we tested question - separate questions on Hispanic origin. We started working, because now we started having - almost everybody had an address. So, we started being able to computerize address lists.

And we also started making the data available on computer tape to states and local community - local governments and universities and so forth so that they could take our data - our raw data. They would never see the original schedules. They wouldn't be able to associate it with a person, but they would be able to take the raw data and take a look at it and pull what they needed from it. In 1970, we also started a targeted outreach to undercounted populations. And I had the honor of doing an oral history with a gentleman who we just recently passed away.

He was in his 90s. And his mother had worked for the Census Bureau while she was going to Howard University in the 1930s. And then, in 19 - right before the war in 1940, he had graduated with a printing degree. He couldn't get a job, because he had been a union and, as an African American man, he wasn't allowed to be in a union. But he was hired by the Census Bureau to be a key punch operator. But his first name was a - it could be a male or female. They thought he was a woman. And, so, he said he showed up his first day of work. It was him and 200 women, which, as a 19-year-old man, he was delighted by. But he left for World War II and then came back.

And he was put in charge because, in 19 - in 1960, the undercount of the African-American population was enormous, particularly African-American men between the ages of 19 and 30. It was very undercounted. And (Jerry) was part of the team that put together the outreach for these undercounted populations. And that's when they started pulling in things like football players, and basketball players, and musicians. He had a good friend who was a disc jockey. So, they were able to do targeted outreach to some of these underserved populations. And they - the undercount dropped 95 percent between 1960 and 1970, which was just an amazing success story. And, again, reinforce the need to have people from the neighborhood collecting the information.

In 1950, we started seeing more, more of our numerators were women than men. In fact, in 1902, half of our permanent employees were women. But most of our numerators or temporary employees tended to be men. And we saw that number increase and increase until 1950 the number of women outnumber the number of men in the field. But the problem was you would have - they would assign them areas. And, sometimes, people wouldn't feel comfortable going to the houses. So, we couldn't be sure of their data. So, in 1970, they reaffirm the need to hire people from the community who recognize the community, who knew the community, who knew - who knew the neighborhoods and would be comfortable going into those neighborhoods.

In 1980, we went to mail out and mail back for everybody. And that's what many of you are familiar with today. You get the census form. You

fill it out. And you mail it back. If you don't mail about back, then they - the enumerator comes to you. We also had started around 1940 doing quality control, where, even if you mailed it out, they would spot check people to make sure the data was right just to see that they were doing things correctly.

And again, we started creating State Data Centers programs that would simplify access to data and, again, increase our outreach to transient, reduce undercounts, and try to get those hard to count populations. And, sometimes, it's easier to do at the state and local level working with them, because each state is going to have its different challenges. So, to set up federal policy isn't - didn't always work.

In 1990, we created the TIGER system, which produced our maps. And that early GPS was also developed here in the Census Bureau. So, everyone's welcome. And they would take that data. And they would be able - instead of having to hand draw these maps, which are hard to believe, but, up until 1990, our geographers would literally overlay and hand draw many of these initial maps. And they would overlay them to make sure that things had changed. So, now, we were able to use early GPS data and other input to produce our maps. And, also, in 1990, we were the first government agency to make that information available on CD ROMs.

In 2000, we always advertised, but it had been more like public service announcements. In 2000, we put out ad campaigns to reach 99 percent of the residents and our campaigns were in 17 different languages. And, as opposed to the beginning of the 20th Century when you saw the number of questions increasing, by 2000, the questions, we started - the questions there are getting smaller and smaller. And why is that? Well, there are several reasons.

We have other ways to get data. We could use administrative data to collect a lot of information. We had a lot of other surveys and censuses that we're collecting this type of data. People, when they think of the census, they think of decennial census and maybe they think of the agricultural or the Economic Census. But we do 125 to 157 different surveys and censuses each year, most of them using statistical sampling. So, all this data, we had other ways to get this data.

So, by 2000, we only asked seven questions in the short form, which was the shortest census we had since 1920. 2000, what's also significant was it was the first time you could do multiple responses for race, because, up to this point, if you were biracial, you had to choose what race you wanted to put on your form. Now, you could choose - you could choose multiple ones. And this was also the first time you had multiple ways to respond. You can mail out and mail back. You could talk to your enumerator. We had a small amount of internet available. Or you could do it by telephone.

And then, in 2005, the American Community Survey replaced the long form, because what we realized is we couldn't wait 10 years to get some of this data. So, the American Community Survey is - it's a rolling survey. Every month, it collects data from about 100,000 households. And that data gets rolled up.

And we have three and five year info - rolling information because they could look at the information across a broad swath of households across this time and get a pretty good picture of where we are. In that way, communities can have ongoing information instead of having to wait 10 years. We know how fast things move. Ten years is too long. It's a completely different - completely different country, completely different neighborhoods. So, that was rolled out in 2005.

So, 2010 was the first time there was no long form since 1950 or 1940 when we start asking those. All households received the same kind of questions. And that holds true for 2020. All households received the same question. 2010 was also significant, because it was the first time we counted same sex couples. Prior to that, they - in 1980, you could choose - you could choose a roommate. There was no - I think that you could be roommate. You could be border. You could - they counted unmarried couples, but 1980 was the first time you had something - so, a lot of times, when you look back and you'll see a couple that was - that we now know was an unmarried or same sex couple, they'll have one head of household. The other is considered a border or a renter. 2010 was the first time we counted same sex couples as married couples.

So, what do we do here? So, I've just given you a whole lot of information about the census. So, what do we do here at the history branch? We like to tell the story of the census. And I just want to direct you. Please go explore our website. Every month, we tell a different story from American history using census data. This month is Hispanic Heritage Month. We've done Mount - the eruption of Mount St. Helens. We've done Babe Ruth. We've done the first Super Bowl. We want to show people that you can use census data, not just the decennial census data, but all of the data across all of the surveys to tell any story.

And the other thing we like to do is we'd like to tell the stories of the people who worked for the census. We have a whole section of interesting people. A couple of my favorite is David Gray. He literally saved the hula from extinction. He was a supervisor in the Census of Hawaii. And then we have - anyone who's been to Manila, the main thoroughfare in Manila is Epifanio de los Santos (EDSA) Highway. Epifanio de los Santos was the man who basically created the Filipino archives in art and literature museums by collecting all that data. He worked for the census.

You know, one of my favorites is Minnie Burck Smith, who was a single mom of seven who supported her children after her husband left by being a field enumerator and then a field supervisor. And one of her sons eventually became Secretary of Commerce. So, definitely rags to riches. And we've got story after story. So, please, we love to tell the story of these people.

And we also like to talk about technology. We say it over and over again American history is census history, census history is American history. And, again, we've got articles, publications. Please take a look at our social media. We like to put out a lot of different things on this day in census. There's just a lot to explore there. And, to talk about the

Census Academy, different ways that you can connect with census data and the Census Bureau.

And, finally, here's my contact information. We work for you. If you have any questions, there's my contact information. Give me a call. Send me an e-mail. Even if you're researching your family's genealogy, we love to help people. My team and I are - that's what we do and that's what we enjoy doing.

With that, operator, are there any questions? Yes, I know it says check historian. My typo. I'm sorry.

Operator: I'm showing no current questions. But, if you'd like to ask a question, please press "star" then "1". Please remember to unmute your phone and record your name clearly when prompted. If you'd like to withdraw that question, you may press star two. Once again, if you'd like to ask a question, please press "star" then "1". One moment for the first question.

Kim Davis: Hi, Sharon. This is Kim. While we're waiting for the first question and we only have time for one or two questions, I do have a question from (Marco). How was the census used to generate scenarios for Social Security implementation?

Sharon Tosi Lacey: I'm sorry. I didn't - I don't understand what the question was.

Kim Davis: How was the census used to generate scenarios for Social Security implementation? Was the census leveraged to implement the ratification of income tax?

Sharon Tosi Lacey: They use the - they have - we have general economic and income data. And we also have the demographic data to anticipate how many people were going to reach those age groups and what - how much money they had earned and if they owned or rented and so forth. So, there was a lot of data available to the government to use while they determined when and how to implement that.

Kim Davis: Okay. Thank you. And, operator, do we have more questions on the line? All right.

Operator: I'm sorry. I was on mute. Our first question comes from (Orlando). I believe your line is open. Again, I believe the name is (Orlando). Your line is open. Okay. And our next question comes from (Monica). Your line is open.

(Monica): Yes. Hello. I had my question in the chat box. I'm not sure if it was answered with links, but my question was about when did they start reporting the number of live births in a family? And, if a woman had lost any to miscarriage or stillborn in between the census years, was that recorded? And, if so, how?

Sharon Tosi Lacey: Great question. So, we did collect vital statistics on things like that, although, the census would usually ask that question

about the census year only. In the past year, had this happen. However, in the 1900 and the 1910 census, there are columns for how many children have you had, how many still living. Those are the only two censuses that asked that question of women. Other than that, when they collected the vital statistics, it was usually about the year before the census.

(Monica): Okay. Thank you.

Operator: Thank you. Our next question comes from our (Mark Young). Your line is open.

(Mark Young): Hi, there. Great presentation. I was wondering, if you could go back a couple slides to the slide - I think it was just after telling the story. I think you had some data links there I was wanting to capture.

Sharon Tosi Lacey: That one or the one after it?

(Mark Young): I think it's the one after.

Sharon Tosi Lacey: This one?

(Mark Young): Just before that. So, maybe that was it. Yes, that must be it. Thank you.

Sharon Tosi Lacey: No problem.

Operator: Okay. And our next question comes from (Heidi). Your line is open.

(Heidi): Hi. Good afternoon. I don't know if you ask my question, either. I put it in the chat. But you were talking that, from a historical standpoint, that the US Census had collect - had proven US citizenship. Is there a reason why we're not doing that today or why it's changed?

Sharon Tosi Lacey: You know, I don't have any insight on to why they make certain decisions. I know from - we asked some sort of citizenship question from 1820 through 2000. The reason we didn't ask it in 2010 is it's asked in the American Community Survey question now in that rolling survey. So, that's part of the reason why we don't have to ask it into the decennial. We're collecting that information all the time. We did not ask it in the 19 - it must have been 1960 Census, because there was no - there was no call for it from the rest of the federal agencies.

In fact, the only state that asked for that information was New York State. And they had special - they paid to have their own census schedules printed off that had the citizenship question on there, because they're - at the time, their state constitution required their internal apportionment be based on citizen vote, you know. But the reason we don't - there's a lot of reasons, but the fundamental reason is we collect that data in the American Community Survey on a rolling basis already.

Operator: Thank you. And the next question comes from (Ahmed). Your line is open.

(Ahmed): Yes. Yes. I have a very simple question. Do you count the illegal immigrants, that means undocumented, not any document at all, in your census data? Do you include them?

Sharon Tosi Lacey: We count everybody who is residing in the United States. We never ask anybody their legal status. I know that's an issue now, but I'm not going to address that because that's way above my pay grade.

(Ahmed): Yes.

Sharon Tosi Lacey: But, no, we count everybody residing in the United States.

(Ahmed): Okay. Thank you so much.

Operator: Thank you. And our next question comes from (Ethan Thomas). Your line is open.

(Ethan Thomas): Yes. Hi. I was just wondering about - if throughout the history of the census, there have been any notable politicians who spoke out against the census. I know - big government versus small government is a big issue throughout all of US history. And I'm wondering if there were any politicians who saw the census as the government asking things about - of their citizens that - as government overreach. I'm just curious if there was anyone throughout history who has - held that opinion.

Sharon Tosi Lacey: Oh, everybody. I have...

(Ethan Thomas): Yes.

Sharon Tosi Lacey: I have - from the 1790 census, I have editorials that people wrote that the census was too expensive and too intrusive. That's been an ongoing thing and that's become a running joke. Like, we're never - we - everybody has that issue. Yes, that's been ongoing from the beginning. And we - every few years, every few censuses, you'll have someone try to get rid of it. It's in the constitution. That's why we had to go to the Supreme Court to get - to get clarification that we could ask more than the count of people, because that was something that they said it was government overreach.

And that's part of the reason why we had such a difficult time in the early years of the Economic Census. And we had to assure people your - their information was going to be confidential. No one could figure out what business it was giving those answers. But, yes, that's been an ongoing struggle.

And, yes, we have had - I can't think - tell you any names off the top of my head. But, yes, that's been - that's always been an issue. Like I said at the beginning, the United States is, in many ways, founded on a general mistrust of the government and healthy mistrust of the government, I guess.

And, so, it's always kind of been a little bit of an uphill battle. That's why we try to assure people. We're - we're nonpartisan. We're simply here for numbers. And we will never ever reveal your personal information to anyone.

Operator: Thank you. And the next question comes from (Jody Arnold). Your line is open. (Jody Arnold), your line is open.

(Katie Arnold): My name is not (Jody Arnold). My name is (Katie Arnold).

Coordinator: (Katie), I'm sorry. Your line is open.

(Katie Arnold): That's Okay. That's Okay. Thank you. Yes, I have two questions. Well, actually, three. I want to know why is the - why do you collect the census data in the first place? Why is it?

Sharon Tosi Lacey: Well, first of all, it's mandated in the constitution to get a count of the people of the United States in order - the main reason is to figure out the apportionment of representation to divide up the House of Representatives among the different states. And the other main reason is to determine the allocation of funds and resources from the federal government to states and communities.

(Katie Arnold): Okay. Okay.

Sharon Tosi Lacey: Every bit of information that we collect is something that's requested or needed by a federal or state agency. We don't collect data that's not needed.

(Katie Arnold): Okay. So, that's closed now. My question now is - so, when you say collect - not collect. Excuse me. When you say, you know what to give to do the different communities, well, is that like an allotment based on the number of races of particular - I'm African-American. Both my parents were born here. Both parents. So, when you collect data for - I'm using my race as example, you - that means that you - that we get a specific amount of allotment from the federal and state level for our resources for our African American communities?

Sharon Tosi Lacey: Yes. And - each one has a different standard for how they determine where the money's going. Like - because there's billions and billions of dollars. Actually, trillions of dollars, probably. But - yes. So, they would look - for example, for schools, they would look where schools need extra resources from the federal government. They would look at - struggling schools, where there - so, yes. So, race is one of the things that they use a determination.

I can't tell you specifically what pot of money, but that - there are pots of money that are determined by our neighborhood makeup and so forth. It also determines, like, where would you put firehouses and where would you put schools. You have to know where are the children - where are the houses, that sort of thing.

But there's a whole lot of criteria that each allocation uses. This is billions and billions of dollars. But, yes, that's why it's important for everybody to participate because it affects your whole community. You know, we need to know you're there in order to get you the resources you need. We, being the federal government.

Kim Davis: Oh, thank you, Sharon, for your presentation today. This is your host, Kim Davis. And we so appreciate this valuable information. This has been a wonderful presentation. And it's given us so much information that we haven't seen through the Census Academy webinar Series yet. This has been fantastic.

And thank you everyone for participating today. And I apologize that we haven't been able to get through all of the questions. If you had a question in chat, we will try to follow up and answer your questions that were not answered. And you can also respond or answer questions by sending an e-mail or contacting us at census. askdata@census.gov or contacting Sharon directly with her e-mail and phone number on the screen here. So, we appreciate everyone's time and attention today. And we hope that you all have a good day. Thank you.

Coordinator: Thank you. And that concludes today's conference. You may all disconnect at this time.

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